

SCHERMERHORN'S MONTHLY:

FOR

PARENTS AND TEACHERS.

OCTOBER, 1876.

VICTORIA FALLS, ZAMBESI RIVER.

THE Zambesi River, in Southeast Africa, drains an immense portion of that long unknown country with which the explorations of Livingstone, Baker, Speke, Cameron, and Stanley have lately made us more familiar. Its various sources are in that middle region where the tributaries of the Nile, Congo, and other great rivers, rise from inexhaustible fountains. It thus forms a central link between the waters of Egypt, West Africa, and Cape Colony. Our readers will remember that in our survey of geographical discovery for 1875, in the May MONTHLY, it was stated that Lieut. Cameron proposed that a ship canal, thirty miles long, should be made to connect the Congo and the Zambesi, thus utilizing with a moderate outlay "one of the greatest systems of inland navigation on the globe."

The length of the Zambesi is eighteen hundred miles, about the same as that of the Rio Grande. The country through which it flows is, near the coast, controlled by the Portuguese; but the interior is occupied by various tribes of negroes, among whom the slave trade is still carried on to a considerable extent.

This region consists of an elevated table-land, thirty-five hundred feet above the sea. The climate and soil are not unfavorable to culture, although some deadly diseases are engendered by unknown causes.

The most striking portion of the scenery of the Zambesi is

that above the Victoria Falls, as named by Livingstone, or Mosiotunga, "Sounding Smoke," as designated by the natives. A ridge of basaltic rock here crosses the course of the river at right angles. A gigantic chasm, one hundred feet wide, and as many deep, here receives the rolling flood, which measures at this point over one thousand yards in width. Niagara probably pours over its precipice an equal volume of water, but it is only six hundred yards wide at the Horseshoe Fall. The river follows the walls of this rocky prison into which it has fallen for twenty miles. The position of the falls does not afford so favorable an opportunity for inspection as the many-sided Niagara, and it may be a long time before civilized sight-seers will spend their vacations or honeymoons near the "Sounding Smoke." Yet the explorations of intrepid enthusiasts are making known the resources of that wonderful continent, and commerce will not be slow to press closely upon the heels of mere discovery. Unsafe as it would be to prophesy, we should yet have little reason to be surprised if the tide of "foreign travel" should soon be partially diverted from well-trodden Europe to the remoter parts of this wonderful earth. Our grandchildren will, perchance, "go and take a look at the Zambesi" with less thought of doing great things than some of us have entertained when starting for Niagara. Then they will realize more fully than we can from this excellent engraving that Victoria Falls, as Livingstone says, "presents one of the most striking scenes of physical geography in the world."



A NATIONAL NECESSITY.

EUGENE LAWRENCE writes to *Harper's Weekly*, in reference to the national aspects of education, in words so true and forcible that we are glad to promote their wider circulation. He says: "The chief labor of one political party must be to educate the people. This is a duty rising far above the usual cries of politics, one that must at last engross all the best intellect of the nation, and form a common ground upon which the West, North, East, and South can most properly unite. An educational amendment to the Constitution, and educational suffrage will alone raise us to an equality with the

swift progress of modern nations. An army of gentle and accomplished school-mistresses can alone extirpate barbarism in Georgia, and soften the children of Texas into humanity and civilization. To reform the nation we must begin at the cradle. On this continent, knowledge must rule."

Mr. Lawrence had chiefly in mind, no doubt, the illiteracy of that large portion of the country where common schools are rare. But not only the ignorant freedmen, but, also, those "poor whites," who may be found in *every* part of the Union, should be reached by a vigorous system of public instruction. It is surprising to observe how soon illiteracy gets a foothold in our large cities, and in our rural districts as well, the moment that vigilance is relaxed. Poverty and sloth incline half-educated parents to neglect entirely the education of their children. All parties should unite to ensure universal education, and if all will not, the duty of those better inclined is all the more imperative.

SIMPLE ILLUSTRATIONS IN PHYSICS.

THE importance of giving children a general knowledge of Nature's ways and modes of working is so well recognized, at the present day, that it would be superfluous to press the point. Still, there is room for a few remarks on the means to be employed to convey this very desirable knowledge. It is an old saying that "seeing is believing;" whether this be so or not, seeing is usually very convincing. What is also highly important, in an educational point of view, seeing enables one to remember an object or phenomenon better than any description of it could. Teachers are, therefore, in the habit of illustrating their lessons, wherever illustration is possible. There is no branch of instruction which stands so much in need of illustration as that of which we are writing. Nature's ways are not always self-evident, and further, she often employs various means to produce very similar results; and in order to comprehend clearly some special thing that she may be doing, we find it to our ease and advantage to induce her to repeat the thing under conditions which we ourselves propose, so that we may the better understand in what manner she works. This

method of questioning Nature we call experiment, and when we employ this same experiment to show some one else what we have learned, we then call it illustration.

We address ourselves more particularly to those teachers of comparatively small schools, whose means are too limited to enable them to purchase the costly apparatus sold by philosophical instrument-makers. When a teacher consults any of our modern text-books on natural philosophy, she finds scattered through these works pictures of apparatus designed to illustrate natural laws or phenomena. On enquiring the value of such things, she will be told that this costs twenty dollars, that fifty dollars, another seventy-five dollars, and so on. This is naturally discouraging, and the teacher reluctantly gives up the idea of having illustrations. But we purpose to show teachers how they can obtain what they want at a reasonable price.

A very simple experiment will sometimes serve to illustrate a point which cannot be made wholly clear by a definition; for example: if we wish to give a pupil an idea of "Inertia," the statement of the theorem not being at all understood, we may take a visiting-card and balance it horizontally on a finger of the left hand, the finger being held vertically, and then place a two-cent piece on the card just over the finger; finally, with a finger and thumb of the right hand, we "flip" the card from the finger *suddenly*; if this is neatly done, the coin will remain on the finger, and the pupil will clearly understand that it had a tendency to remain at rest, and that the sudden motion of the card was not sufficient to overcome this tendency.

What does an illustration *comprehend*? To our thinking, a mistake as to this point is the vital cause of the teacher's difficulties.

An illustration comprehends sufficient power or means to illustrate the particular ideas for which it is designed educationally, *and nothing beyond this*. When we look at modern philosophical apparatus, we notice a remarkable deviation from the above definition. Certainly, it fulfils the first requisite, viz., it has sufficient power to illustrate the ideas; but it goes beyond this, and puts forth a claim to rank as a work of art. Instead of a card, a finger, and a coin, we have a mahogany pillar, a mechanical arrangement for "flipping the card," and an ivory ball in lieu of the coin. Now, if these things were made

for the man of wealth to amuse and instruct himself with, or for a college with plenty of means, all this polish and artistic finish might be very nice; but there are many teachers who only value an illustration for the knowledge that it gives, and not for its ornamental appearance in the physical cabinet. We purpose, in accordance with these considerations, to describe in this journal, from time to time, a series of experiments, or illustrations, in the various branches of natural philosophy, the cost of which shall be within the reach of nearly all school teachers; and, that these illustrations may have additional interest, we shall cast them in the form of lessons given to young students.

R. S.

HOW TO SECURE EFFECTIVE VENTILATION.

THE article under the head "Ventilation," in the June MONTHLY, is of a kind well calculated to do good. I trust you will continue to discuss the subject, until our buildings, both public and private, are built so as to provide a *full supply of pure air* to the occupants thereof, and to secure the *withdrawal* of the *impure atmosphere* from all the apartments. Having been engaged for over forty-four years in the construction of buildings in New York City, I have personal knowledge of the methods of building during that time. I have endeavored to ascertain the best methods of ventilation. Many years since I adopted and put in practical operation a plan which has been found effectual, which I should be pleased to show any of your readers. This plan has also been adopted within a few years, by others in different places. It is nearly twenty years since I first adopted it, and I have found no defects in it; it is simple, inexpensive, and effectual. I propose to explain briefly this system of ventilation, and to show that its cost is so small that no reasonable objection can be made on that score.

A great many persons believe that the foul air of an apartment, or the air impregnated with carbonic acid gas, is always to be found near the floor, and not near the ceiling. This may be true when the air has been impregnated with it to an extraordinary degree, but usually the noxious gas is diffused

throughout the entire room. In summer time, we can ventilate our rooms by raising or lowering the window-sashes, or by openings in the roofs, or by the use of some of the various contrivances applied to windows; but in winter, when we need it most, all these fail, and other means are necessary. No window or door should be opened so that a perceptible current of cold air can blow on any one in the room.

As all buildings used for dwellings or schools require to be warmed in winter, the best method is by the use of *hot-water pipes*, the next, *steam-pipes*, and the worst—*hot-air furnaces*. But whatever heating apparatus is used, the following system of ventilation can be easily applied: Construct the smoke-flue of wrought or cast iron (the former is preferable, though the latter is least in price). Around this smoke-flue build a flue or shaft, for ventilation. From each room of the building, lateral flues of tin or other material are to be carried through the centre of the walls or partitions, or between beams, so as to enter and connect with the main ventilating shaft. These flues are to open into the rooms near the floor, and also near the ceiling, the larger opening always to be the lower one, and the one generally used, particularly in the day time, when no gas-lights are burning. The fresh air coming into the rooms, after being warmed by the heating apparatus, may be admitted near the floor or near the ceiling. The warmest air will always be found near the ceiling. The heat of the smoke-pipe radiating so much heat in the *main ventilating shaft* will cause a strong upward current therein, which is supplied from each room through the lateral pipes before mentioned. Thus a constant change of air is obtained in the rooms, and this too without any draft. In the evenings, when gas-lights are used, the upper outlet should also be opened. This outlet, as before stated, must not be too large, or the warm, fresh air would escape before being used.

The furnaces in general use are very injurious to health; in that they destroy the moisture in the air, and otherwise injure it. No air should be admitted into a room after having been brought in contact with a surface that is red hot, or nearly so. The pipes for the admission of air are often too small, not allowing the air to pass freely into the rooms. It is better to raise a large volume of air to a moderate degree of heat, than

to heat a small volume to a high temperature. I might also add that the main ventilating shaft should be divided so far as possible, that each room or quarter of the building may have an independent flue. This will the better secure a steady out-flow during high winds, as all flues on the lee side of a building draw better than those on the windward side. Moreover, if all flues were slightly smaller at the top, a better draft would be had, other things being equal. It should be stated that, whenever possible, the air admitted through the heating apparatus, should be taken from some point eight or ten feet from the surface of the ground.

The only expense attendant upon this system of ventilation is the original cost of the smoke-flues, lateral pipes, and registers, which is a small outlay for the benefit derived. Its annual cost is nothing, as the heat now wasted is utilized to run it.

W. P. E.



HOME-STUDY SOCIETIES.

THE problem of a thorough education is much harder for young women than young men. The arrangements and customs of a young man's life suit a long course of study. The average age now of students entering colleges is eighteen or nineteen; after this comes a three years' course in a professional school, and often besides two years in some foreign university. During all this time the young man's business is study; he may frequent social parties, or otherwise amuse himself, but he is expected at certain hours to be occupied with his books. His future success depends in a large degree on the perseverance with which he devotes himself to these intellectual employments.

With a girl it is entirely different. She leaves her school or college at the age her brother enters. She is then absorbed in society, and much of her time is spent in "visiting," and though she may take lessons in music or some modern languages, it becomes exceedingly difficult to arrange and carry out any satisfactory plan of study. She is not supposed to have any steady or obligatory occupation, her time becomes everyone's, and the best habits gained by long years of study are lost. Even if she have time for reading or improving her-

self, she may have no one to direct the line of her studies, or to test them afterward, so that her intellectual work becomes extremely desultory, and its results of little value, either to herself or others. And yet an hour or two spent every day on a consecutive plan of study would not interfere either with social or housekeeping duties, and would in the end fit her vastly better for whatever position she may hold in the future. It is a wonder that those reformers who are so anxious to improve woman's political position, have not turned their attention to this, the fatal weakness in woman's training.

Certain Boston ladies of high social position have set themselves in a quiet way to endeavor to remedy this evil in woman's education. They have formed an association called a "Society to Encourage Studies at Home," which has now been in operation a few years. It contains members in every part of the country, even some from Colorado and Louisiana. Every lady joining pays a small fee, and is expected to devote a certain amount of time to the course of studies which she selects. There are committees on different subjects, who have taken the best advice and framed courses of reading and study. One recommends a course on "General History," for instance; another on zoology, another on botany, or physical geography or art, or German and French, or English literature. The circular giving the lists of books recommended is before us, and contains excellent authorities, the historical wisely embodying distinct periods, instead of covering long and general outlines of history.

The member who selects her course is expected to write to a member of the committee an abstract from memory of what she has read, and her own ideas upon it, and her difficulties in the study. The other replies, criticises, and advises, as she may think best, the object of the plan being, of course, to compel each student to think out what she has read, and thus to correct the peculiarly feminine weakness of vagueness and inaccuracy of thought. It appears from a recent circular that on the list of students were two hundred and ninety-eight names. The record shows 67 per cent., or two hundred and four, who have done "satisfactory work;" thirty-five taking the highest rank, one hundred the second, and sixty-nine the third. Only 21 per cent. have worked indifferently or failed. The average

time given by the members has been about eight hours weekly.

The choice of study indicates the earnest character of the work assumed. Only sixteen take French, nineteen German, thirty-six art, while forty-four choose science, one hundred and eighteen English literature, and one hundred and twenty-seven history. The plan of the association is certainly admirable, and ought to be imitated in every large city. It brings the most thoughtful and cultivated ladies throughout the country into correspondence on topics of vital importance, and produces thus a certain Freemasonry of culture. Hundreds of girls in remote localities, or in cities where they are overrun by demands of the most trivial kind, can thus be put in communication with women of the highest culture, who are in earnest for mental improvement.—*N. Y. Times.*

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

THE office of reproof is to secure amendment without injury either to teacher or pupil. It cannot escape the observation of any intelligent parent or teacher, that rebuke is very often administered with so little tact, and with so much of personal feeling, that it not only fails of its reformatory object, but also greatly impairs a teacher's usefulness. Passion is far less pardonable in the teacher than in the child. A person who has not acquired sufficient self-control to withstand temptation to displays of impatience and anger, has no right to hold a teacher's position. We expect children to be forgetful, careless, and unreasonable. They have had so little training in the school of self-restraint, that we are prepared to bear with them to an extent unwarranted in our intercourse with adults. The very first qualification for discipline in a teacher, therefore, is a readiness to make proper allowances for the inexperience of childhood.

The injury resulting to the teacher herself, when she allows anger to unsettle her judgment, is much greater than is commonly supposed. It does not end with those "bad feelings" which are certain to follow an unjust or excessive reproof or punishment. Every action that enlists wrong emotions is a

kind of switch that turns us off somewhat from the direct line leading up to our intellectual ideal. A teacher who is in the habit of "running off the track" prescribed by her better judgment, is insensibly vitiating that judgment, and becoming less capable of governing her school. Self-government must precede success in governing others.

The injury that results to pupils from unwise reproof is manifold. The sense of injustice, be it in ever so slight degree, is utterly destructive of a real desire to amend. Whatever confirms that vicious antagonism which comes up like a weed to take the place of mutual confidence, is to be most sedulously avoided. Bad conduct cannot be overlooked, but the teacher should strive to influence her pupils to look upon idleness, tardiness, and all disregard of rules, as common enemies, destructive not only of the teacher's authority, but also of the pupil's enjoyment and progress. If once she can succeed in inducing them to *fight with her* against all temptations to disobedience and neglect, she has already prevented the necessity of rebuke; reminders only being thereafter required. The sense of injustice can seldom find lodgment when this attitude of sympathetic co-operation is maintained, and that it can be secured, even in the case of quite young children, has been too frequently demonstrated to admit of doubt.

But there will still arise many occasions when the teacher, who is generally successful in the strategy of preventing conflict, will be obliged to give emphatic rebuke. Emphasis, however, is not noise and bluster. In reading, the old method, which confined the expression of emphasis chiefly to loudness of voice, has given place to more refined and effective devices, so that slight pauses and inflections now accomplish what was formerly brought about by stentorian stress. So in the matter of school discipline, the use of the birch and ferule has been largely diminished in favor of the increased efficacy of what is called "moral suasion." We are bound to declare, however, that very much of this suasion is quite as *immoral* as the old-fashioned beatings which modern educators condemn. There is a kind of scolding quite as injurious as indiscriminate flogging, and chiefly because it also is without reason, untimely, excessive, or angrily administered. Very few pupils were ever injured by the amount of physical pain involved in corporeal

punishment, but many were cruelly humiliated, needlessly embittered, and deprived of all possible respect for their teachers, and this may also easily happen in a school where a blow is never struck, but where that sharpest of all weapons, the tongue, is used without restraint.

To preserve the self-respect of her pupils, should be the teacher's first care in administering reproof. If self-respect be lost, nothing is gained. The particular fault may be temporarily repressed, but a prolific root of new faults has been planted. The teacher, whose tone and manner implies the expectation of obedience, and of obedience grounded on the honor and good sense of her pupils, is oftener obeyed with cheerful readiness than she whose voice and gesture expressed impatience, and who seems to assume that the children are, of course, bent upon mischief. It is better to make the mistake of overrating right dispositions, than of imputing wrong ones needlessly. It is better to assume that a disobedience was a fault of oversight, than, in the absence of evidence, to berate a child for wilful misdemeanor. If the reminder of the teacher is, in point of severity, proportioned to the offence, and considerably conveyed, it will make the wrong-doer thoughtful but not resentful. There is always enough pride in our natures to repel exaggerated blame, and especially are we disposed to excuse ourselves when the manner of the accuser seems to imply that our faults are "just what might have been expected." While it is foolish to adopt the worn-out formula, "I am much surprised at you, John," there are still delicate and effective ways of intimating a belief in a pupil's desire of good behavior and fidelity in study.

The amount of publicity that should be given to reproof, is to be determined by the relation of the offence to the good order of the school. An open defiance of authority cannot be too positively and publicly rebuked. Repeated offences justify decided censure. Yet something is to be allowed for the youth and temperament of pupils, as it is manifestly unwise to speak as severely to a child just out of the primary department, as to the old transgressor about to graduate. We have seen so much accomplished by private, confidential remonstrance, that we would urge a trial of it in all troublesome cases. Let the public reproof be as light, in the first

instance, as may be consistent with the maintenance of order, but the teacher should seize the first opportunity to have a friendly talk with the refractory pupil without the knowledge of his fellows. A good understanding may often be reached in this way, the good effects of which will lessen the necessity for public reproof.

It ought not to be necessary to say that any approach to what may be properly called scolding is quite inadmissible. No matter how just the strictures, how gross the rebellion, or how great the temptation to punish a pupil "on the spot," the loss of self-control implied in such an exhibition lowers the teacher in the eyes of the school. Children do not analyze conduct, but they arrive at the motives which govern it, in some cases, with marvelous quickness and accuracy. "Teacher was *mad*, to-day," is not an uncommon, though a faulty expression among the little folk of mis-governed schools. "To be angry, and sin not," is a rare accomplishment anywhere; but the school-room should furnish as many instances as any sphere of work, for there it is needed as absolutely as in the domestic circle.

Promptness in discovering and correcting improper conduct, is one of the essential elements of good discipline. The teacher who can be easily outwitted, invariably loses the respect of her school. A few secret triumphs by the mischief-breeders, and the more orderly pupils share in their contempt, while prompt detection is apt to create an exaggerated but useful estimate of the teacher's perceptions. Oftentimes a quiet intimation that the teacher has noticed a surreptitious proceeding is enough punishment, in the shame it brings, and a preventive of future like attempts.

To the inexperienced teacher we would say, do not impose too many rules, nor commit yourself to a high standard of discipline before the school at the outset. Rather, work your way up to it. As you gain experience, you can venture upon more definite restraints. To "take back" anything, in this department, is hazardous. And it should be remembered always that government is not an exact science, but a system of adaptations, in accordance with far-reaching principles indeed, but still constantly dependent for success upon vigilance, self-control, and common-sense.

EX-TEACHER.

"*A FRAID.*"

THERE is a class of words that are generally called adjectives, which have the construction of participles rather than of adjectives. They never precede nouns, but either follow them or else complement some verb, implied if not expressed—commonly the verb *to be*. Or, if they precede a noun or a pronoun, as is sometimes the case in poetry—

"I saw the shape
Still glorious, before whom *awake* I stood"—

they are transposed, and still participial in their use and construction. Of these, the word *afraid* may be taken as a representative. While classed with adjectives, it is never prefixed to the noun or the pronoun with which it may be said to be construed. Thus, to say "an afraid boy," as we do "a timid, or fearful, or frightened boy," would not be English. The word must have the construction of a participle: "The boy is afraid," "He seems afraid," "Afraid of being alone, he went to a neighbor's." To this class belong such words as *alike*, *alive*, *ashamed*, *asleep*, *awake*, *aware*, and a long list of others that might be given.

This peculiarity naturally awakens the inquiry whether such words ought really to be designated as adjectives. Some writers, while refusing to call a portion of them adjectives, regard that portion invariably as adverbs. Thus, Dr. Johnson, commenting on the word *alike*, says: "In some expressions it has the appearance of an adjective, but is always an adverb." And among his illustrations is the following: "The darkness and the light are both alike to thee." *Asleep* he pronounced, in like manner, an adverb: "How many thousands of my subjects are at this hour asleep!" But, whatever such words may be elsewhere, in connections like these they certainly are not adverbs. Substitute *not unlike* for *both alike* in the former of the foregoing instances, and *awake* for *asleep* in the latter, and the character of the words thus introduced is still the same. That is, if *alike* and *asleep* here are adverbs, then *unlike* and *awake* are adverbs too. But these Dr. Johnson unqualifiedly designates as adjectives. Most writers, however, are more consistent, and pronounce all these words alike and invariably ad-

jectives, "when the antecedent term is a noun or a pronoun." But there is reason to believe that even this classification is hardly just.

It is a well-known fact in regard to the uses of the adverbs *much* and *very* that, while the former cannot legitimately be prefixed as a modifier to ordinary adjectives in the positive or the superlative degree, the latter cannot be prefixed to verbs or participles. Thus, we can say, *very good*, *very large*, *very similar*, etc., but not *much good*, *much large*, *much similar*, etc. On the other hand, while it is proper to say *much admired*, *was much benefited*, *were much pleased*, etc., such combinations as *very admired*, *was very benefited*, *were very pleased*, and the like, are not English. That is to say, participles do not admit of being modified by *very*; they must take the word *much*, or some other word than *very*. And, on the other hand, adjectives in the positive degree cannot be modified by *much*; they must be modified, if at all, by *very* or some other adverb. Tried by this principle, the words under consideration do not appear to be adjectives; they are rather of a participial or verbal character. For example, we cannot say *very afraid*, *very amazed*, *very alike*, *very alive*, etc. We must say *much afraid*, *very much afraid*, *much ashamed*, *very much alike*, *fully alive*, *fast asleep*, *not very fast asleep*, etc.

It is also worthy of note that some of the words to which we have reference are termed sometimes participles, and sometimes participial adjectives. Take, for example, the word *beloved*. In such a sentence as "Thou art greatly beloved," Worcester says it is a participle, though we have no such verb as *to belove*, from which to derive it; but in the sentence, "This is my beloved son," he pronounces it a participial adjective. And on this point grammarians generally agree with the distinguished lexicographer. But just here it may not be impertinent to ask, why is the word in the one case called a participle, and in the other an adjective? Is there any reason for it other than the difference in its uses? In the one case it is the complement of the verb *to be*; its function is legitimately that of a participle, so called. In the other, it is prefixed to a noun whose meaning it modifies; its function is that of a genuine adjective.

Now, the point we desire to make is simply this: If such a

word as *beloved* when prefixed to a noun deserves to be called an adjective, and when used as the complement of a verb is a participle, then such a word as *afraid*, which never has the construction of an adjective, but always that of a participle, ought to be called, not an adjective, but a participle. It is true that *afraid* (though it is the regular participle of the old verb *to affray*, as its despised congener *afeared* is of the old word *to affear*), has lost the power of conveying any idea of action, and denotes only a state or condition. But we are not sure that the idea of activity (or of passivity) is essential to a participle. This idea belongs to participles generally from the fact that they are derived, or considered as derived, from verbs, and as such they carry with them the meanings of their parent words. The same is true also, to a great extent, of nouns; those derived from verbs often denote action. Witness such words as *creation* ("The creation of the world by an omnipotent Power"), *arraignment*, ("The arraignment of the culprit,"), *ignition*, *burial*, and hundreds of others. But no one ever supposes that, for this reason, the idea of action is essential to a noun. Nor would it be regarded as essential to participles, if a participle could be considered as something else sometimes than "a word derived from a verb."

Dr. Johnson, no doubt, perceiving that the words *afeared* and *afraid* possessed the construction and functions of participles, as well as being convinced that they were derived respectively from the verbs *to fear* and *to affray*, called them "participial adjectives." While he did not feel authorized to reject the name of "adjective" as applicable to them, he was observant enough to see that there was so much of the "participle" in them as to warrant his calling them participial adjectives. The word *ashamed*, which he very inconsistently calls simply an adjective, Sheridan, perceiving its participial nature, includes among "participial adjectives," as do Worcester, Smart, and others. These may be only straws, but they indicate, on the part of these writers, a conviction that these and similar words are something more than mere adjectives—that they possess participial functions, and are entitled in some way to the name of participle.

Then, there is a large class of words commencing with the prefix *un*, respecting which the common opinion is thus ex-

pressed by a prominent American grammarian: "When the participle is preceded by the negative participle *un*, it becomes an adjective, unless the verb from which it is formed admits the same prefix. The words, *untiring*, *unsought*, *unseen*, and *unknown* are examples of this class of adjectives. But the words *unbinding*, *unfolded*, *undone*, etc., when used in the verbal sense, are to be regarded as participles, since they are formed regularly from the verbs *unbind*, *unfold*, *undo*, etc." But this makes the essence of a participle consist in its derivation rather than in its functions. And yet, in such a sentence as "The package was undone by some person unseen by me," are not the words *undone* and *unseen* functionally the same? Most assuredly. Then, why call the former a participle, and the latter (which is only another form for *not seen*) an adjective? The two words, obviously enough, should be treated alike, irrespective of their derivation, and alike called participles, if that is the best name to call them by. On this point, however, we do not propose to touch. Our one object is to show, if possible, that words destitute of the primary function, and incapable of the construction of adjectives, should not be classed as adjectives, while those that are construed as participles should be regarded, classed, and treated as participles, whatever may be their parentage.

S. W. W.

The Nation says: "When a young man sees a first-rate man teaching the rudiments of French or German, or correcting the grammar or spelling of freshmen's themes, on three or four thousand dollars a year, he secretly resolves that he will not commit himself to any vocation in which such a waste of great gifts is possible; and in like manner, when he reads a debate in Congress approving of an attempt to discover the exact sum on which a military instructor can keep body and soul together, he determines that the service of the Government in any such capacity shall never be his business. In short, we have in our whole educational machinery done what we could to discourage the ambition and energy and capacity of each generation from entering the very callings in which energy and capacity are of most importance to the State, and we drive them into the already over-done work of material production."

THE ABUSE OF THE POSTAL CARD.

IN common with the general public, we hailed the postal card as the entering wedge of cheap mail facilities. We had our misgivings, however, as to the expediency of making the distinction in price between open and closed communications. In the first place, it is an absurd distinction, for it costs the government just as much to sort, transport, and deliver a postal card as an average letter. The cheaper and more exposed message is inevitably regarded as less important, which leads to more of carelessness on the part of postmasters and carriers. "Nothing but a postal" has become a proverb already. But while we are waiting for that slow growth of wisdom in our legislators which shall give us sensible, that is to say, simple and permanent postal facilities at the lowest possible cost, it may be well to note the popular abuses of the present system.

First among these abuses we place the indulgence in slovenly habits of correspondence. The postal card has been a great temptation to this, by reason of its very convenience. For the majority of people it is unfortunately too convenient. Persons who have not formed strict habits of order and neatness are the most ready to use the postal card on every occasion. And because it is "only a card", they carelessly omit the date, and sometimes even the address or the signature. Sometimes they write in pencil, so that, after the necessary course of shuffling which cards undergo in transfer through a hundred hands, the writing becomes one continuous smutch, and is almost illegible. We have seen such cards, written, too, within reach of pen and ink, which were a disgrace to the senders, and hardly less than an insult to the recipients. Another evidence of slovenly habits is the overcrowding of a card. If a person has much to say, the decent method of conveyance is to take room to say it. To compel your correspondent to strain his eyes and waste his time in deciphering a closely-written card, when a little more pains and paper and the additional expenditure of two cents would save him that needless sacrifice, is inconsiderate in the extreme. A trifling amount of foresight will prevent the use of the card when a sheet of paper is needed. Another mistake is want of clearness in the message. Some correspondents seem to be haunted by the fear that they may

be too explicit in statement. They would write a business letter with minute care, but the poor postal is treated shabbily, as if of no consequence. The feeling that space is limited, as in a telegram, leads some to make unintelligible contractions. Others seem to write on the theory that, as the card is open to inspection, the contents should be in half-cypher, with just enough, and no more perspicuity than may lead to its possible interpretation by the party addressed. If you ask one of these astute individuals why he did not use an envelope, he will stare at you in amazement, and perhaps escape from the absurdity of his position by the very cheap prevarication that he did it to save money.

But the most glaring abuse of the postal card is the employment of it to purposes for which it is wholly unsuited. There is a vast amount of intelligence which, from its very nature, should not find place upon the postal card. Important business should never be entrusted to this mode of conveyance, both because the delivery of the card is less certain and prompt, and also because all business communications are in a sense confidential. Even if the writer be entirely willing that the contents of a card be exposed, the recipient may have reasons for feeling otherwise. It is not probable that cards are very often read by uninterested parties, but the risk of disclosure in the case of a private message should not be thrust upon any one. It is a pointed discourtesy to address a man upon his business in this open way, and we think it shows more self-respect for a man to regard his own business as worthy of the protection of a seal. We should have little confidence in the judgment and good sense of a business correspondent who filled a postal with details of this sort. Sometimes persons who have complaints to make think that the statement of them will prove more effectual if subjected to this semi-publicity. So far from this being true, we are confident, from the many cases that have come under our own observation, that this disregard of honorable procedure invariably gives offence, and indisposes the party addressed to conform even to the equities of the situation. People are generally extremely resentful of implied threats and needless exposure of private practices, and the very worst way to collect a bill over due, or to secure compliance with an urgent request, is to advertise the delinquent

on a postal card. He knows that, in all probability, no one has read the peremptory message, but he knows also that the writer intended to give annoyance.

Of the violation of delicacy in sending open letters of friendship through the mail, it ought not to be necessary to speak. One would suppose that our natural instincts would prevent this. But it is one of the results of the fatal facility of the postal card, that to save time, or even two paltry pennies, we find ourselves talking of our family concerns in a loud voice at the street corners. That is what it amounts to when we write of private affairs on a card. We do not insist that no *messages* concerning personal matters, such as we might send verbally or in unsealed folds, should be thus transmitted, but all love-making, of whatever degree, all discussion of household plans, or of relatives or neighbors, all expression of sentiments and opinions, should be reserved for the decorous seclusion of an envelope. Here, again, the question is not solely of one's own sense of propriety. Our friend may be very glad to hear that he is to receive a visit one day earlier or later than was at first intended, but he may not care to find, joined to this bit of information, a bit of gossip that might do no harm when uttered in his personal ear. There is a place for ardent expressions of affection, but it is neither a railroad depot nor the back of a postal card. If we pity those underbred persons who make profuse demonstrations in the one place, we may not admire those who, with less occasion, make them in the other.

If we were to bestow unasked advice upon an ungrateful world on the subject of the right use of postal cards, it would be couched very much in rules like the following, to wit:

Be as particular in regard to the date, superscription, and legibility of a card as you would be in the most important sealed letter.

Use ink whenever possible.

Never use a postal card for anything but brief and comparatively unimportant messages.

Omit "Dear sir," "Yours truly," or "affectionately," but leave no doubt as to your identity. Initials will sometimes serve, but not always, as, in the case of a large mail, a man may easily exchange or forget the names of his correspondents if they are represented only in this way.

If you have any unpleasant communication to make, put it under cover of an envelope.

Reserve the expression of your likes and dislikes for the closed letter or the privacy of four walls, which, though they have ears, have not so wide a mouth as "all out doors," to which the postal card is committed.

We trust that the day of penny postage is not very far distant, but in order not to become quite demoralized before it arrives, we should resist most strenuously the temptations to slovenliness, and to the disregard of proprieties which the postal card has forced upon us.

C. W. J.

SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

IN an address before the University Convocation, Superintendent L. S. Packard, of Saratoga Springs, pointed out some of the defects in the system of school supervision in the State of New York, as follows:

Unfortunately, those boards organized under the general law of the State, for organizing union schools, and some boards organized by special enactment, are not legally endowed with the power to make inquisition into the abilities of their teachers; but are compelled to go to some power or authority outside of themselves, in order to obtain for themselves and for the schools under their care, legally qualified teachers. This is wrong, an absurdity on its face; and operates in many ways to the hindrance of the cause of education.

Will the dry goods merchant hire a clerk and then send him to his neighbor, the grocer, for him to determine the fitness of the young man for the position? Will the cotton manufacturer engage a man to work in his mill, and then send him to the button maker for him to determine his qualities as an operator? Will the New York Central & Hudson River railroad go to the Albany and Troy horse-railroad, and ask it to sit in inquisition upon the fitness of its conductors and engineers? Did our own legislature, when it selected last winter a man for the position of Superintendent of Public Instruction, go over into Rhode Island to inquire into the fitness of the candidate? With equal propriety and with a similar absurdity, does a body

of nine or more intelligent men, citizens of a strong and stirring city, or village, send the teachers it may wish to employ, to any power outside of itself, to sit in inquisition upon their merits?

Mr. Packard calls attention to the absolute neglect, and in many cases, the utter impossibility of proper supervision by the present school commissioners, who are often incompetent and always ill-paid, and whose office is not held in sufficient honor, or clothed with the rightful responsibility. He then outlines a system which would obviate these defects, and urges teachers and all the friends of education to use their utmost influence to secure the needful legislation to establish it.

There should be in every town a legislative body of a suitable number of men, who shall elect a superintendent of the schools of the town. This board and its superintendent should be legally endowed with all the elements, and the right to exercise all the functions of school supervision. There should also be for the whole State a legislative body, call it Board of Regents, or any suitable name. And somewhere between these two points thus laid down, should be placed every educational institution of the State, which receives toward its support a dollar of the public money now disbursed by the various officers and boards of the State. Normal schools, academies and common schools should all stand alike here. But foundation and roof are not enough to make a building; nor brain and extremity enough to make a human body. No more are a State head and local officers, without a proper medium of communication, and a proper filling up of mutual support, sufficient to give to our schools a proper supervisory system. The State board should appoint or elect three superintendents, one of normal schools, one of academies, and one of common schools. These superintendents should be supported at State expense, by a fair salary and a just allowance for all expenses while traveling on public business.

The superintendent of the normal schools should, in the broadest and best sense of the term, be a normal school man. He should be located in the geographical centre of the normal schools of the State. He will thus be enabled to give to them, in a large degree, the fifth and most important element in supervision, viz., personal inspection. The superintendent of the academies should

be an academy man. He should appoint four deputies, who should be located in the centre of the various sections of the State assigned to their care. He should at stated times demand the personal presence of these deputies at the central office, for purposes of advice and conference. He should require such monthly reports from them as would indicate the exact condition of each academy in each section. These personal meetings and reports will show to the superintendent that section or that academy which may need his personal attention and inspection. The deputies should have power to summon each to his own office at stated times, the principal, or president, or both, of every academy in his section. He should require proper monthly reports. From these personal meetings and reports, he will be able to devise and enforce, by personal attention, such plans for harmony of effort, correctness of standard, and such accuracy in statistics among the academies of his section, as the advancement of the cause of higher education and a just distribution of the public money demand. By the means thus described, the superintendent, though not able to inspect in person all the academies of the State, may secure an equivalent, and become so acquainted with them all as to make his influence felt and acknowledged in every institution in the State.

The superintendent of common schools should be located geographically as those before named. He should appoint four deputies, who should be located each near the centre of his own section. The relations between these deputies and their chief, should be the same as those named between the deputies and chief of academies. But owing to the large number of common schools of the State, these deputies should have the power of appointing an assistant deputy in each county in his section. He should, also, have the power of establishing the same relations between his assistants and himself, as exist between himself and his chief. These assistant deputies should have the power of establishing the same relation between the town superintendents and themselves, viz., personal meetings and monthly reports. Let us recapitulate, and in the opposite direction. The town superintendents, supervising in connection with their boards, the schools of the towns, and reporting in person to the assistant deputies ; they

to the deputies, and they to the chief, all giving as much personal inspection as possible, all practical educators, and all required, unless it be some town superintendents, to abandon every other business, calling, or occupation, on assuming the duties of the office to which they are appointed.

Could such a system as thus described become the supervisory system of our State, among the immediate results would be, two great, yes, sufficient advantages, viz. : A unified system ; and one unified on the basis of an already demonstrated good, of a systematic school supervision. Among the growing advantages may be named better school-houses, better furniture, and better school material. A larger attendance of scholars, and more days of schooling in each year. Better qualified, better paid, and more permanent teachers. A general systematic grading of the schools throughout the State, and a more general public interest in their welfare.

GEORGE SAND'S mastery of her native tongue was well-nigh marvelous, and may be fairly accounted an evidence of genius by itself. The fact is suggestive of that other fact, often noted but little heeded in the English or the American system of education, that a French girl is taught her own language thoroughly, whether any other useful or ornamental thing is taught her or not. It is this thorough training of French women in the use of their own language which has given to that language a mobility and vivacity, if we may so use the term, which no other modern tongue can rival, and at the same time made French women the most brilliant and agreeable of talkers. George Sand wrote the best idiomatic French, merely because she wrote precisely as an educated French woman talks. Writing hastily, she could scarcely do otherwise ; and fortunately the French of French women's conversation is the best French there is. Would that something like this might be said of English.

PROFESSOR—"Where was Buckingham at this time?" Senior—"He was abroad." Professor—"Yes, he was absent from England ; dead, in fact." Chorus of cheers from the men who were about to fail next.

THE BATTLE OF CANNÆ.

HOW NOT TO DO IT.

NEW methods, half comprehended and poorly administered, afford a fine opportunity to make sport, as the following caricature of the object-method in teaching history, taken from a daily paper, may illustrate:

BARNES, the schoolmaster in a suburban town, heard that boys could be taught history by letting each boy in the class represent some historical character and relate the acts of that character as if he had done them himself. This struck Barnes as a good idea, and he resolved to adopt it. The school had then progressed so far in its study of the history of Rome as the Punic wars, and Mr. Barnes divided the boys into two parties, one Romans and the other Carthaginians, and certain of the boys were named after the leaders. All thought it a fine plan, and Barnes noticed that they were so anxious to get to the history lesson that they could hardly say their other lessons properly. When the time came, Barnes ranged the Romans upon one side of the room and the Carthaginians on the other. The recitation was very spirited, each party reciting its deeds with extraordinary unction. After a while, Barnes asked a Roman to describe the battle of Cannæ. Whereupon the Romans threw their copies of Wayland's Moral Science at the enemy. Then the Carthaginians made a battering ram of a bench and jammed it among the Romans, who retaliated with a volley of books, slates and chewed paper balls. Barnes concluded that the battle of Cannæ had been sufficiently illustrated, and tried to stop it; but the warriors considered it too good a thing to let drop, and accordingly the Carthaginians attacked the Romans with another battering ram and thumped a couple of them in the stomach.

Then the Romans turned to and the fight became general. A Carthaginian would grasp a Roman by the hair and hustle him over the desks and a Roman would give a fiendish whoop and knock a Carthaginian over the head with Greenleaf's Arithmetic. Hannibal got the head of Scipio Africanus under his arm, and Scipio, in his efforts to break away, stumbled, and the two generals fell and had a rough-and-tumble fight under the

blackboard. Caius Gracchus tackled Hamilcar with a ruler, and the latter, in his struggles to get loose, fell against the stove and knocked down thirty feet of stovepipe. Thereupon the Romans made a grand rally, and in five minutes ran the entire Carthaginian army out of the schoolroom and Barnes along with it. Then they locked the door and began to hunt up the apples and lunch in the desks of the enemy. After consuming the supplies they went to the windows and made disagreeable remarks to the Carthaginians who were standing in the yard, and dared old Barnes to bring the foes once more into battle array. Barnes went for a policeman, and when he knocked at the door it was opened, and the Romans were found busy studying their lessons. When Barnes came in with the defeated troops, he went for Scipio Africanus, and, pulling him out of his seat by the ear, thrashed that great military genius with a rattan until he began to cry, whereupon Barnes dropped him and began to wallop Caius Gracchus. Then things settled down in the old way, and next morning Barnes announced that history in the future would be studied as it always had been.



ORDEALS AND OATHS.

THE association of ideas which serves as a magical basis for an ordeal is quite childish in its simplicity. Suppose it has to be decided which of two men has acted wrongfully, an appeal is had to the ordeal. There being no evidence on the real issue, a fanciful issue is taken instead. Thus, in Borneo, when two Dyaks have to decide which is in the right, they have two equal lumps of salt given them to drop together into water, and the one whose lump is gone first is in the wrong. Or they put two live shell-fish on a plate, one for each disputant, and squeeze lime-juice over them, the verdict being given according to which man's champion mollusk moves first. This reasoning is such as any child can enter into. Among the Sandwich-Islanders, again, when a thief had to be detected, the priest would consecrate a dish of water, and the suspected persons, one by one, held their hands over it, till the approach of the guilty was known by the water trembling. Here the con-

nection of ideas is plain. But we may see it somewhat more fully thought out in Europe, where the old notion remains on record that the executioner's sword will tremble when a thief draws near, and even utter a dull clang at the approach of a murderer.

Starting with the magical ordeal, we have next to notice how the religious element is imported into it. Take the ordeal of the balance, well known to Hindoo law. A rude pair of scales is set up, with its wooden scale-beam supported on posts; the accused is put in one scale, and stones and sand in the other to counterpoise him; then he is taken out, to be put in again after the balance has been called upon to show his guilt by letting him go down, or his innocence by raising him up. This is pure magic, the ideal weight of guilt being by mere absurd association of ideas transferred to material weight in a pair of scales. In this process no religious act is essential, but in practice it is introduced by prayers and sacrifices, and a sacred formula appealing to the great gods who know the walk of men, so that it is considered to be by their divine aid that the accused rises or falls at once in material fact and moral metaphor. If he either goes fairly up or down, the case is clear. But a difficulty arises if the accused happens to weigh the same as he did five minutes before, so nearly at least as can be detected by a pair of heavy wooden scales which would hardly turn within an ounce or two. This embarrassing possibility has in fact perplexed the Hindoo lawyers not a little. One learned pundit says, "He is guilty, unless he goes right up!" A second suggests, "Weigh him again!" A third distinguishes with subtlety, "If he weighs the same he is guilty, but not so guilty as if he had gone right down!" The one only interpretation that never occurs to any of them is, that sin may be an imponderable. We may smile at the Hindoo way of striking a moral balance, but a similar practice, probably a survival from the same original Aryan rite, was kept up in England within the last century. In 1759, near Aylesbury, a woman who could not get her spinning-wheel to go round, and naturally concluded that it had been bewitched, charged one Susannah Haynokes with being the witch. At this Susannah's husband was indignant, and demanded that his wife should be allowed to clear herself by the customary ordeal of weighing. So they

took her to the parish church, stripped her to her undergarments, and weighed her against the church Bible; she outweighed it, and went home in triumph. Here the metaphor of weighing is worked in the opposite way to that in India, but it is quite as intelligible, and not a whit the worse for practical purposes. For yet another case, how an old magical process may be afterwards transformed by bringing in the religious sanction, we may look at the ancient classic sieve and shears, the sieve being suspended by sticking the points of the open shears into the rim, and the handles of the shears balanced on the forefingers of the holders. To discover a thief, or a lover, all that was required was to call over all suspected names, till the instrument turned at the right one. In the course of history, this childish divining-ordeal came to be Christianized into the key and Bible; the key, of course, to open the secret, and the Bible to supply the test of truth. For a thief-ordeal, the proper mode is to tie in the key at the verse of the 50th Psalm, "When thou sawest a thief, then thou consentedst with him;" and then, when the names are called over, at the name of the guilty one the instrument makes its sign by swerving or turning in the holder's hands. This is interesting, as being almost the only ordeal which survives in common use in England; it may be met with in many an out-of-the-way farm-house.

Mediaeval ordeals, by water or fire, by touch of the corpse, or by wager of battle have fallen to mere curiosities of literature, and it is needless to dwell here on their well-known picturesque details, or to repeat the liturgies of prayer or malediction said or sung by the consecrating priests. It is not by such accompanying formulas, but by the intention of the act itself, that we must estimate the real position of the religious element in it. Nowhere is this so strong as in what may be called the ordeal by miracle, where the innocent, by divine help, walks over the nine red-hot ploughshares, or carries the red-hot iron bar in his hand, or drinks a dose of deadly poison, and is none the worse for it; or, in the opposite way, where the draught of harmless water, cursed or consecrated by the priests, will bring, within a few days, dire disease on him or her who, being guilty, has dared to drink of it.

Looking at the subject from the statesman's point of view,

the survey of the ordeals of all nations and ages enables us to judge with some certainty what their practical effect has been for evil or good. Their basis being mere delusive imagination, when honestly administered, their being right or wrong has been matter of mere accident. It would, however, be a mistake to suppose that fair play ever generally prevailed in the administration of ordeals. As is well known, they have always been engines of political power in the hands of unscrupulous priests and chiefs. Often it was unnecessary even to cheat when the arbiter had it at his pleasure to administer either a harmless ordeal like drinking cursed water, or a deadly ordeal by a dose of aconite or physostigma. When it comes to sheer cheating, nothing can be more atrocious than this poison-ordeal. In West Africa, where the Calabar bean is used, the administerers can give the accused a dose which will make him sick, and so prove his innocence, or they can give him enough to prove him guilty, and murder him in the very act of proof; when we consider that over a great part of that great continent this and similar drugs usually determine the destiny of people inconvenient to the fetich-man and the chief—the constituted authorities of church and state—we see before us one efficient cause of the unprogressive character of African society. The famed ordeal by red-hot iron, also, has been a palpable swindle in the hands of the authorities. In India and Arabia the test is to lick the iron, which will burn the guilty tongue but not the innocent. Now, no doubt the judges know the secret that innocent and guilty alike can lick a white-hot iron with impunity, as any blacksmith will do, and as I have done myself, the layer of vapor in a spheroidal state preventing any chemical contact with the skin. As for the walking over red-hot ploughshares, or carrying a red-hot iron bar three paces in the palm of the hand, its fraudulent nature fits with the fact that the ecclesiastics who administered it took their precautions against close approach of spectators much more carefully than the jugglers do, who handle the red-hot bars and walk over the ploughshares nowadays; and, moreover, any list of cases will show how inevitably the friend of the Church got off, while the man on the wrong side was sure to "lose his cause and burn his fingers." Remembering how Queen Emma in the story, with uplifted eyes, walked over the ploughshares

without knowing it, and then asked when the trial was to begin, and how, after this triumphant issue, one-and-twenty manors were settled on the bishopric and church of Winchester, it may be inferred with some probability that in such cases the glowing ploughshares glowed with nothing more dangerous than daubs of red paint.

Almost the only effect of ordeals which can be looked upon as beneficial to society is, that the belief in their efficacy has done something to deter the credulous from crime, and still more often has led the guilty to betray himself by his own terrified imagination. Visitors to Rome know the great round marble mask called the *Bocca della Verità*. It is but the sink of an old drain ; but many a frightened knave has shrunk from the test of putting his hand into its open "mouth of truth" and taking oath of his innocence, lest it should really close on him, as tradition says it does on the forsworn. The ordeal by the mouthful of food is still popular in Southern Asia for its practical effectiveness ; the thief in the household, his mouth dry with nervous terror, fails to masticate or swallow fairly the grains of rice. So, in old England, the culprit may have failed to swallow the consecrated *cor-snæd*, or trial-slice of bread or cheese ; it stuck in his throat, as in the Earl Godwin's in the story. To this day the formula, "May this mouthful choke me if I am not speaking the truth !" keeps up the memory of the official ordeal. Not less effective is the ordeal by curse, still used in Russia to detect a thief. The *babushka*, or local witch, stands with a vessel of water before her in the midst of the assembled household, and makes bread-pills to drop in, saying to each in order, "Ivan Ivanhoff, if you are guilty, as this ball falls to the bottom, so your soul will fall into hell." But this is more than any common Russian will face, and the rule is that the culprit confesses at sight. This is the best that can be said for ordeals. Under their most favorable aspect, they are useful delusions or pious frauds. At worst they are those wickedest of human deeds, crimes disguised behind the mask of justice. Shall we wonder that the world, slowly trying its institutions by the experience of ages, has at last come to the stage of casting out the judicial ordeal ; or shall we rather wonder at the constitution of the human mind, which for so many ages has set up the

creations of a delusive fancy to hold sway over a world of facts?

From the ordeal we pass to the oath. The oath, for purposes of classification, may be best defined as an asseveration made under superhuman penalty, such penalty being (as in the ordeal) either magical or religious in its nature, or both combined. Here, then, we distinguish the oath from the mere declaration, or promise, or covenant, however formal. For example, the covenant by grasping hands is not in itself an oath, nor is even that wide-spread ancient ceremony of entering into a bond of brotherhood by the two parties mixing drops of their blood, or tasting each other's. This latter rite, though often called an oath, can under this definition be only reckoned as a solemn compact. But when a Galla of Abyssinia sits down over a pit covered over with a hide, imprecating that he may fall into the pit if he breaks his word, or when in our police courts we make a Chinaman swear by taking an earthen saucer and breaking it on the rail in front of the witness-box, signifying, as the interpreter then puts it in words, "If you do not tell the truth, your soul will be cracked like this saucer," we have here two full oaths, of which the penalty, magical or religious, is shown in pantomime before us. By the way, the English judges who authorized this last sensational ceremony must have believed that they were calling on a Chinaman to take a judicial oath after the manner of his own country; but they acted under a mistake, for in fact the Chinese use no oaths at all in their law courts. Now, we have to distinguish these real oaths from mere asseverations, in which emphatic terms, or descriptive gestures, are introduced merely for the purpose of showing the strength of resolve in the declarer's mind. Where, then, does the difference lie between the two? It is to be found in the incurring of supernatural penalty. There would be no difficulty at all in clearing up the question, were it not that theologians have set up a distinction between oaths of imprecation and oaths of witness. Such subtleties, however, looked at from a practical point of view, are seen to be casuistic cobwebs which a touch of the rough broom of common sense will sweep away. The practical question is this: Does the swearer mean that by going through the ceremony he brings on himself, if he breaks faith, some special

magic harm or Divine displeasure and punishment? If so, the oath is practically imprecatory; if not, it is futile, wanting the very sanction which gives it legal value. It does not matter whether the imprecation is stated or only implied. When a Bedouin picks up a straw, and swears by him who made it grow and wither, there is no need to accompany this with a homily on the fate of the perjured.

Let us now examine some typical forms of oath. The rude natives of New Guinea swear by the sun, or by a certain mountain, or by a weapon, that the sun may burn them, or the mountain crush them, or the weapon wound them, if they lie. The even ruder savages of the Brazilian forests, to confirm their words, raise the hand over the head or thrust it into their hair, or they will touch the points of their weapons. These two accounts of savage ceremony introduce us to customs well known to nations of higher culture. The raising of the hand toward the sky seems to mean here what it does elsewhere. It is in gesture calling on the heaven-god to smite the perjurer with his thunderbolt. The touching of the head, again, carries its meaning among these Brazilians almost as plainly as in Africa, where we find men swearing by their heads or limbs, in the belief that they would wither if forsworn; or, as when among the Old Prussians a man would lay his right hand on his own neck, and his left on the holy oak, saying, "May Perkun (the thunder-god) destroy me!" As to swearing by weapons, another graphic instance of its original meaning comes from Aracan, where the witness swearing to speak the truth takes in his hand a musket, a sword, a spear, a tiger's tusk, a crocodile's tooth, and a thunderbolt (that is, of course, a stone celt). The oath by the weapon not only lasted on through classic ages, but remained so common in Christendom that it was expressly forbidden by a synod. Even in the seventeenth century, to swear on the sword (like Hamlet's friends in the ghost-scene) was still a legal oath in Holstein. As for the holding up the hand to invoke the personal divine sky, the successor of this primitive gesture remains to this day among the chief acts in the solemn oaths of European nations.

True to the laws of primitive magical reasoning, uncultured men carry on the symbolic reversal of their oaths. An Abyssinian chief, who had sworn an oath he disliked, has been seen

to scrape it off his tongue and spit it out. There are still places in Germany where the false witness reckons to escape the spiritual consequences of perjury by crooking one finger, to make it, I suppose, not a straight but a crooked oath, or he puts his left hand to his side to neutralize what the right hand is doing. Here is the idea of our "over the left;" but so far as I know this has come down with us to mere schoolboy's shuffling.

It has just been noticed that the arsenal of deadly weapons by which the natives of Aracan swear, includes a tiger's tusk and a crocodile's tooth. This leads us to a group of instructive rites belonging to Central and North Asia. Probably to this day there may be seen in Russian law courts in Siberia the oath on the bear's head. When an Ostiak is to be sworn, a bear's head is brought into court, and the man makes believe to bite at it, calling on the bear to devour him in like manner if he does not tell the truth. Now, the meaning of this act goes beyond magic and into religion, for we are here in the region of bear-worship, among people who believe that this wise and divine beast knows what goes on, and will come and punish them. Nor need one wonder at this, for the idea that the bear will hear and come if called on is familiar to German mythology. I was interested to find it still in survival in Switzerland a few years ago, when a peasant woman, whom a mischievous little English boy had irritated beyond endurance, pronounced the ancient awful imprecation on him, "The bear take thee!" (*Der bär nimm dich!*) Among the hill-tribes of India a tiger's skin is sworn on in the same sense as the bear's head among the Ostiaks. Rivers, again, which to the savage and barbarian are intelligent and personal divinities, are sworn by, in strong belief that their waters will punish him who takes their name in vain. We can understand why Homeric heroes swore by the rivers, when we hear still among Hindoos how the sacred Ganges will take vengeance sure and terrible on the children of the perjurer. It is with the same personification, the same fear of impending chastisement from the outraged deity, that savage and barbaric men have sworn by sky or sun. Thus the Huron Indian would say, in making solemn promise, "Heaven hears what we do this day!" and the Tunguz, brandishing a knife before the sun, would say, "If I lie, may the sun

plunge sickness into my entrails like this knife!" We have but to rise one stage higher in religious ideas to reach the type of the famous Roman oaths by Jupiter, the heaven-god. He who swore held in his hand a stone, praying that, if he knowingly deceived, others might be safe in their countries and laws, their holy places and their tombs, but he alone might be cast out, as this stone now—and he flung it from him. Even more impressive was the great treaty-oath, where the *pater patratus*, holding the sacred flint that symbolized the thunderbolt, called on Jove that if by public counsel or wicked fraud the Romans should break the treaty first—"In that day, O Jove, smite thou the Roman people as I here to-day shall smite this swine, and smite the heavier as thou art the stronger!" So saying, he slew the victim with the sacred stone.—*Macmillan's Magazine.*

FIRST, BE CLEAN.

THE subject of personal cleanliness may be very homely and unwelcome, but it is one that forces itself upon the attention of many school-teachers, and that should not be thoughtlessly thrust aside. In our public schools there is always a class of pupils who are not properly instructed in this regard at home, and to whom the teacher must impart information not set down in text-books. Sometimes she is driven to this in self-defence, but when the claims of external decency have been fully met, there yet often remains much to be desired in the interest of health and morals. Principals and teachers in private and higher schools, also, are not exempt from the necessity of reminding their pupils of the conditions that belong to real gentility. Neatness is not merely the preservation of visible freedom from what we call "dirt;" it implies thorough preservation from every kind of contamination, whether of garments, person, or surroundings.

The habits of boarding-pupils can be more carefully watched and controlled than those of pupils living at home, and influence with parents can only be secured by the exercise of tact and patience. It is an ungracious office to inform a person

that his habits are detrimental to health and self-respect, when perchance he is performing all that public sentiment requires of him. But cleanliness is so efficient an ally of all good causes that it cannot be safely overlooked. Therefore should all teachers bravely advocate the high standard of order and neatness which, we trust, is rightfully imputed to them as a class, in their personal relations.

Headache, colds, bad breath, feeble circulation, may often be traced to personal neglects of which a pupil is quite unconscious. Instead of scolding a girl for an imperfect recitation, an observant teacher may kindly make private inquiry as to her state of health and suggest a simple preventive for future listlessness. When the pores of the skin are kept open by frequent ablution, and the surface impurities that are absorbed by garments are removed by suitable exposure to air and sunlight and by change, one source of dullness is removed. The proper care of the teeth is not too small an affair to require notice, for it is often wholly neglected by growing children whose parents make no effort to establish a proper habit until the appearance of tartar and decay. To keep the mouth sweet should be accounted one of the essentials of cleanliness, and yet even well-dressed children of considerable age will often be suffered to be careless, so be that the outside of their front teeth show no discoloration. We hope the day will come when a more refined public sentiment will compel all gentlemen to discard tobacco, but while waiting for that millennium it is not too much to ask that every person keep the breath free from the defilement of decay. The food which clings to the teeth decomposes in a short time and becomes offensive. This fact, suitably illustrated as a chemical phenomenon, could be so impressed upon a school that many would take the hint without the teacher's personal application.

The disinfecting power of sunlight is underrated and neglected as a sanitary auxiliary in all our homes. Many a housekeeper who has a reputation for neatness and order forgets to avail herself of this, and sends the children to school with headaches or dullness resulting from sleeping in beds filled with the perspiration of three generations, or from wearing their own underclothing too long. Not only should bedclothes be well aired, but the direct rays of the sun should often be

invited to free the mattresses from the accumulated emanations of the skin's pores. Moreover, children should be taught to be even more attentive to the condition of underclothing than to that which is open to public inspection. It is the invisible enemy that destroys, oftener than we think, and one has only to maintain correct habits in this regard to become aware by olfactory demonstration of the causes which contribute largely to mental sluggishness, ill-health, and moral decay. Soil upon the body inevitably induces feebleness of mental action, and by insensible but sure steps lays the foundation of moral obtuseness and neglect. The "little things" of life often prove to be the substance of personal history. A person physically clean is in a fair way to maintain genuine moral respectability.

G. G.

*NOTES ON THE PROCEEDINGS OF
EDUCATIONAL SOCIETIES.*

PROF. PHELPS, President of the National Teachers' Association, made the following points in his annual address: That the General Government should devote the proceeds of public lands to the extension of common-school education. That normal schools should everywhere be sustained as the bulwark of the public schools. That the theory and history of education should be taught in our colleges. That the kindergarten should be incorporated into our system of education, as the link between the family and public school. That our National Board of Education should be sustained.

Prof. Olney, of Michigan, argued in favor of requiring a satisfactory examination in the elementary branches as a condition of exercising the elective franchise. He showed the necessity of protecting the Government from the illiteracy and low prejudices of the class which now rules our large cities and is rapidly acquiring strength on the Pacific coast.

Dr. Motta, Brazilian Commissioner of Education, gave an account of the condition of educational affairs in his country. He said the schools are under the control of the State. The Brazilian Government looks upon teachers as the most useful men in the country. On that account they are kindly treated,

and well looked after when they are unfit for service. Their salaries are periodically increased. Our primary education is compulsory, and it is free; but in the country the law is less rigidly enforced. The proportion of illiterate persons is decreasing. Our higher schools are those of medicine, engineering, and mathematics. Medicine is studied for six years, and no one can graduate in medicine in Brazil without having studied it six years, theoretically and practically. No one can be admitted to the bar without five years' study in the scientific course, and study with an eminent lawyer for several years.

The great heat, which prevented a large attendance, also caused the discussions to be brief and languid.

The International Conference at Philadelphia was addressed by several foreign delegates, who gave accounts of the condition of education in their respective countries. Dr. Murray, of Japan, said: There are three kinds of schools in Japan: the Government schools, which are under the direct control of the Department of Education; the public schools, controlled by the local governments; and the private schools. The Government schools include the colleges, normal schools, and universities at the capital, and are under charge of an officer appointed by the Department of Education. Regarding the public schools under the local governments, they are established all over the empire, and are really elementary in their character. An officer is appointed by the local government, and is responsible through it to the educational department of the capital. These schools may be counted by thousands, and they are supported in various ways: first, by the Government, which makes an appropriation proportionate to the number of scholars; secondly, a small local tax is levied, and is, in most cases, most cheerfully paid; and a third source of support is the liberal donations of wealthy native princes and merchants, who take a pride in maintaining the credit of their districts in the matters relating to instruction. The superintendents of private schools are less exact, but they have to obtain permission or license of the Educational Department before a school can be established. There are seven normal schools of the Government, and they now send out teachers, as soon as they graduate, to the various provincial schools, in order to reorganize them and introduce all the improvements.

Dr. Migerka, of Austria, said, in regard to his country: Every little town which has, within four English miles, forty children between six and fourteen years of age, is compelled to establish public schools, and every parent is compelled to send the children to school during those years. There are also high schools or universities, and the middle schools. The latter are preparatory departments for the higher schools. The only lady teachers in Austria, even at the girls' schools, are those who teach needlework.

There was also some discussion at this meeting of the uses of a pedagogical museum. Mr. Hodgins, of Canada, described the South Kensington Museum, in London, which was founded by Mr. Semper, a German, and has since been the model for other museums in Germany and of one in Toronto. The latter contains a valuable series of educational text-books and appliances, instruments, slabs from Mr. Layard's excavations at Nineveh, galleries of sculpture, paintings, and casts, besides a collection of weapons, etc., of the Canadian Indians. Schools obtain their books and charts here, and pay a little less than half price for them. The Governments of Brazil, Japan, Belgium, and Sweden have offered their entire educational exhibits now in the Exhibition to our Government, for the purpose of aiding in the establishment of such an institution at Washington. Some of our readers will be surprised to hear that Russia is represented at Philadelphia by a superior collection of educational apparatus, while France and Germany make a very poor show.

Among the papers read at the State Teachers' Association at Watkins, N. Y., was one on "Education and the State," by Charles E. Fitch, editor of the Rochester *Democrat*, who favored compulsory education to the extent necessary to secure intelligent voters; but opposed all interference with, or grants to, systems of higher education by either State or nation. He considered those who advocate State and national universities fully as dangerous to the commonwealth as those pleading for aid to sectarian institutions.

Prof. Shackford, of Cornell University, read an essay upon "Common Sense as a Regulating Principle in Education and Life." The professor gave an illustration of the lack of this. When he was a boy, he was asked by a retired shipmaster to give

him the Latin word for beech and the Greek for oak. Having done this, he was asked, "Now, can you tell them apart when you see them?" He was obliged to answer "No."

HARVARD LATIN.

AS showing that the interest in a candid effort to raise the standard of classical study is not confined to teachers, the following extract from the *Christian at Work*, touching Prof. Reiley's review, in the MONTHLY, of Allen & Greenough's Latin books, is in point. It is entitled "Harvard Latin."

"The larger colleges are not, like his Holiness the Pope, *always* infallible. They do sometimes fail to secure the most competent instructors; and the text-books published by their professors, or under their sanction, come sadly short, sometimes, of plenary inspiration. The Latin as taught at Harvard, for example, by Prof. Greenough, seems to need considerable and quite severe doctoring. Some of his Latin works, prepared in connection with Prof. Allen, have been shown, by Prof. Reiley, of Rutgers College, in a series of articles in SCHERMERHORN'S MONTHLY, to be full of manifold and stupendous blunders against Latin declension, conjugation, rules of syntax, and, indeed, against grammar in about all its parts. The defence set up by Prof. Allen, viz., that his publishers used the 'Key' without the 'act or knowledge of either of the authors,' is not less lame than the scholarship exhibited. For the question will be pressed, How came the manuscript of Messrs. Allen & Greenough in the hands of the publishers, and who put the blunders there? Defective proof-reading does not account for their number, and especially for the mistakes that are repeated methodically. Prof. Allen, however, admits plumply that 'for the great majority of his assertions Prof. Reiley must be left in possession of the field.' Prof. Greenough, on the other hand, believes in the wisdom of silence. Though convicted of writing bad Latin, and of ignorance on many simple points, he utters never a word. Is this because he hopes to see the 'thing blow over' soonest by his keeping doggedly quiet, or because he fancies Harvard is strong enough to carry a package of slaughtered Latin text-books on its broad shoulders without feeling the burden?"

THINGS TO TALK ABOUT.

THE transmission of musical and vocal sounds by telegraph is being rapidly perfected, so that it will not long be safe to wager anything on the improbability of literally talking across the ocean through a speaking-tube three thousand miles in length. Prof. Bell has succeeded in the transmission of tunes, with the full chords, from Boston to New York, and persons have also conversed through one thousand miles of wire, the voices being distinctly heard and distinguished from each other. We may soon have the pleasure of assembling in our various halls throughout the Union, to listen to the music of Patti in Paris, or to the eloquence of Gladstone in London.

IF Mr. Darwin wished for a further instance in support of his theory of the origin of species, he might possibly find one in some curious fish which have just been brought to England. These fish are called "telescope fish," from the remarkable length of their organs of vision, which project a considerable distance from the side of the head. They are natives of China, and the stories which have been circulated concerning this peculiar feature in their formation have generally been received with incredulity. In large specimens the eyes are placed on the extremity of a cylindrical projection as much as an inch in length, and when, at last, individual fish found their way to Europe, they were considered to be a distinct species. A further peculiarity is in the formation of the caudal and anal fins, which are prolonged in such a way as to give the fish the appearance of having two or more tails. These "telescope fish" are, however, nothing more than a monstrosity of the common gold and silver carp, which the Chinese love to exercise their cunning in cultivating; and they originally sprang, no doubt, from some specimens which produced the abnormal growth as a protection from some injury either accidentally or purposely inflicted. Just as florists produce the manifold varieties of form and color in plants from what is known in the trade as a "sport," or unusual growth, or as bird-fanciers breed the "cranky" varieties of canaries which find favor with certain amateurs, so the Chinese, by years of selection and in-breeding, have produced this monstrous form of the common carp.

SPAIN is the great producer of raisins. A few years ago a crop of twelve thousand tons, for the supply of the world, was considered large; now, London receives twelve thousand tons. The improvement in the article most observable of late years is that of removing the stalk before shipment. Muscatel or table raisins from Malaga are known as "layer," "bunch," and "loose" raisins, the best being picked from the stalk. This sort is largely used in America. The finest growth of muscates come in decorated boxes, with colored paper and lace edgings, increasing the expense of packing to the extent of a hundred and twenty-five dollars per ton. The sultana raisins, produced in Turkey, are cured in the sun, a slight sprinkling of oil being employed to prevent the too great evaporation of the moisture, and also to assist in the preservation of the fruit when packed and shipped. The Eleme raisins are also produced in Turkey, and are chiefly used for export to distant colonies and for ship's stores. As their name implies, they are picked raisins, and are packed specially for ship use from the vines of the Carabourna and Vourla districts in Asia Minor. The greater proportion of the raisins from Smyrna are known as "Chesme," the name of an island near the mainland. These are the Turkey grapes, pure and simple, without selection, picking of stalks, or any manipulation whatever. They find a ready market in Eastern countries, but are the special feature of fruit trading between Turkey and German ports. There are vast districts in Persia where raisins are cultivated, but the difficulty of getting them to market is so great that it does not pay to export, consequently they are used for distilling and for local purposes. At the Cape of Good Hope, raisins are produced which find a market chiefly in Australia. Distillation from fruit is annually increasing, and the supply for this purpose is the black raisin of Turkey. These are small grapes, cultivated without much care, but full of saccharine. They are much valued by wine-makers, and form the stock on which much of that agreeable beverage is founded. They are also much used in the manufacture of spirituous drinks at the place of growth. This raisin has of late years been used in the wine districts of France, and in Paris.

JIPACAPA, a town in the republic of Ecuador, is the principal seat of the hat manufacture—"Panama," like "Mocha"

in the case of coffee, and "Brussels" in that of carpets, being a misnomer. Before the leaf has begun to open—when, in fact, it resembles a closed fan—it is cut off close to the petiole, the base of which forms the centre of the crown of the hat. It is then divided longitudinally into strips with the thumb nail, the thick part forming the midrib being rejected. The number of shreds into which it is divided of course depends on the fineness of the hat into which they are to be manufactured. The split leaf, which is of a greenish-white color, is next dipped into boiling water, then into tepid water acidulated with lemon-juice, and lastly it is allowed to soak in cold water for some time, and afterward dried in the sun. Each hat is, or ought to be, made of a single leaf. They vary in price, according to fineness, from thirty cents to fifty dollars. The damping and drying operations cause the shreds to assume a curled or cylindrical form, which much increases the strength without injuring their pliancy. Before plaiting, the coarser qualities are damped with water, but the finest sorts are left out in the morning dew, and worked on before sunrise. A hat of the finest quality, made out of a single leaf, will take several months to make it complete, and the plaiting will be so fine as hardly to be perceptible at a short distance. The plant is by no means difficult to cultivate, and it grows well in the damp heat of an orchid house where the temperature does not fall below sixty degrees.

ANOTHER new occupation for the great West is the rearing of the Cashmere goat (known also as the Persian, Angora, Circassian, and Thibetan goat), from which the staple of the famous Cashmere shawl is derived. This animal was first brought to this country some twenty years ago, by Dr. J. B. Davis, of Columbia, South Carolina. Since then it has been taken to Tennessee, and more recently to Nebraska and the Territories. One gentleman in Nebraska has a flock of two hundred, and his success has led many others to engage in the raising of them as a regular pursuit. These goats are hardy, thrive on coarse food, fatten easily, and are very good eating. Their chief value, however, lies in their beautiful white and long curly hair, which is extremely valuable, being in great demand for articles for ladies' wear, of great softness, lustre, and brilliancy, besides being largely used in the manufacture of Utrecht vel-

vet, damask hangings, plushes, linings for carriages, etc. It is also extensively used, both alone and in combination with silk, for making lustres, tabinets, and fringes. The finer sorts are used in great quantities in Lyons, in the manufacture of lace, and in Saxony, Austria, and Prussia for dress goods and shawls. The fleece of the Cashmere goat weighs about four pounds. The milk of the goat varies little from cow's milk, but is slightly more nutritious and more easily digested. Five goats eat about as much as one cow, and together yield considerably more milk.

MISCELLANY.

"ELEGANTLY furnished rooms to rent in a family consisting of two floors," is part of an advertisement in a morning newspaper.

WILLIAM KERR, Superintendent of Schools in Hamilton, was recently fined fifteen dollars for disturbing a school. The school-ma'am says he sat with his feet on top of the desks and across the aisle, creating a laugh among the scholars, and then demanded order in school. The teacher told him to behave himself first, and then she could keep order. He replied, "You are getting pretty big, ain't you? If you are too big for your shoes, I will get you a new pair." She dismissed the school, and the Superintendent annulled her certificate.

A TEACHER contributes the following remarkable extracts from compositions: "The original form of boats was probably very inferior to what it is now, as they are now very much better in shape, and much faster than they ever were before." "Ice is used to keep dead folks fresh, and to make ice-cream." "In school there are benches and desks and teachers and other things."

A TEACHER in Indiana has proposed the following questions as being the most important at present for the discussion of teachers: 1. How should pupils be taught to study a spelling lesson? 2. How should pupils be taught to study reading lessons? 3. How should letter-writing be taught? 4. Reviews—their times and extent. 5. Written examinations—how often and to what extent? 6. What should be done with pupils who fail to prepare lessons?

SCENE: The recitation in Greek Testament. *Prof.*: "How do you explain the passage, 'Strait is the gate and narrow is the way,' etc.?" *Fresh.*: "I suppose it means that mere professors shall not enter into the Kingdom of Heaven."

"Do you like your teacher?" asked one little girl of another.

"Indeed I don't," was the prompt reply.

"Why?" asked the first, innocently.

"Because she's just as sassy to me as my own mother."



SIGNS OF PROGRESS.

A WISCONSIN teacher, Mr. M. G. Kimball, uses a conversational method in teaching. The subject matter of each study and lesson is made clear to the pupil by a full and familiar conversation upon it, so that before he goes to the printed page he has a perfect understanding of what he is expected to find there. The thing or idea is given before the words. The technical and critical language of the book is then memorized, and serves to fix what is already in the mind.

FRANCE is said to be now spending 71,000,000 francs for primary instruction, of which a part is paid by the State and the remainder by the communes and the parents of the pupils, and this is more than is spent for that purpose by any other nation of Continental Europe. In the proportion of scholars to the population, Germany surpasses France, as the former has 15 per cent. to 13 per cent. in the latter. In France primary instruction is obligatory.

IN 1875 there were in Chili one thousand two hundred and eighty-four public and private elementary schools, giving instruction to eighty-five thousand four hundred and forty-two children. There are twenty-four higher schools under State control, and, in addition, in the cities, good English and German schools. The University at Santiago has a faculty of thirty-five professors. There are a military and a naval and four normal schools.

A LAW has been passed in Germany, forbidding the construction of school-rooms with windows on both sides of the room. It is said to be proven that rooms so lighted are injurious to the eyes.

It is good news that the Italian Government intends to establish free schools. They are greatly needed, inasmuch as sixty of every one hundred men in the country can neither read nor write. It is unfortunate that, while Italy devotes eighty million dollars annually to her army and navy, she has, hitherto, given less than five million a year to popular education.

A NEW department of the University of Michigan, at Ann Arbor, the School of Architecture and Design, will be opened for the first time the coming college year.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS.

¹ "SAXON STUDIES" is an attempt to describe the peculiarities of the inhabitants of Dresden and vicinity, where the author spent six years making observations upon life, manners, and character. He gives abundant evidence of having "studied" diligently the details of Saxon life, so far as it could be observed by a curious foreigner; but he also bears witness upon every page to an entire lack of sympathy and discrimination, which lack leads him to make unjust comparisons and sweeping statements. Indeed, he seems to study out ingenious and refined methods of expressing his disgust. No reader can fail to mark the absence of that judicial temper which should distinguish a writer's report of a foreign sojourn, while a Saxon could not be blamed for charging malice. We think it a misfortune when an American so far forgets the requirements of courtesy as to allow his personal dislikes not only to color, but also to corrode his opinions, so that they cannot fail to irritate, as well as mislead. Whoever will take the pains, however, to separate the chaff from the wheat, will find in Mr. Hawthorne's book many true and vivid sketches of an interesting people. The whims that are painfully elaborated in some portions of the book, do not obscure the results of nice observation in others. On the whole, the author shows so clearly the advantage of thorough familiarity with his subject, through actual residence in Saxony, that one cannot help wishing that he had the further qualifications of large-hearted patience and impartiality.

¹ By Julian Hawthorne; J. R. Osgood & Co.

* "ILLUSTRATED LESSONS IN OUR LANGUAGE" is the title of a little book designed to lead young pupils to a comprehension of the more simple principles of grammar and composition. The subject is developed chiefly by object lessons. The exercises are varied. The same objectionable "sentence building," that we have condemned in another text-book, is produced here.

TABLES of statistics may not be the most readable of documents, but, when accurately compiled, they are invaluable for reference. Prof. Alexander J. Schem has prepared the "STATISTICS OF THE WORLD," containing tabulated statements of the population, commerce, coins, debt, productions, weights and measures, etc., of all the nations of the world. We judge them to be carefully compiled. The estimates of the greatness of the United States in the year 2000 are foolish exaggerations, and unworthy of a statistician.

THE use of globes is becoming more common and thorough in our schools. By the use of maps alone many problems that should be familiar to every pupil are but poorly comprehended. A "HAND-BOOK OF TERRESTRIAL GLOBES," by Ellen E. Fitz, contains a large number of problems, and fifteen illustrations designed to show the author's method of mounting and operating globes.

* "PRINCIPIA; OR, BASIS OF SOCIAL SCIENCE," by J. R. Wright, is a survey of the principles governing civilized society from a liberal standpoint. The author has thoroughly classified the departments of his subject, and shows a tolerant, truth-seeking spirit.

PUBLISHERS' DEPARTMENT.

Dr. Fischer's New Latin Series is receiving much deserved attention. The press gives it most enthusiastic reception. Scholarly teachers speak of it in a manner most encouraging to the cause of sound learning. We have room for only a few extracts:

Prof. E. P. Crowell, Amherst College, Mass.: "It is constructed upon an ingenious plan, well adapted to the wants of beginners, and well executed. It is certainly worthy of the consideration of all teachers of preparatory schools, and of a careful trial."

* G. P. Quackenboss; D. Appleton & Co.

* Ginn Bros.

* Lee & Shepard.

* J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Rev. M. R. Hooper, Academy for Boys, Yonkers, N. Y.: "It seems to me to be the best school grammar and reader. There is no trace of the compiler about it. It shows great conciseness, without loss of clearness. The syntax is wonderfully good. The book appears to have been designed by a teacher of great practical ability. I know no book that is so easy of reference. The Reader is excellent in plan. I am glad to find Dr. Fischer bold enough to write his own Reader."

The Boston Traveler: "The plan is logical and sensible. The pupil is not crammed with dry details, altogether incomprehensible to the mind brought, for the first time, into contact with a new language; but rather, by skillful gradations and reasonable application of rule to fact, is taught to read and then to apply grammatical principles."

The Christian Intelligencer: "Its peculiar combination of the practical and theoretical methods of study cannot fail to be successful. It will shorten the elementary course in Latin fully one-half, and will still impart a far more thorough knowledge of the language than has been possible by any other method. The style of the Reader combines the greatest easiness and plainness with genuine classicity. It is a model of idiomatic and grammatical correctness, and reads as if it had been produced in Latium in the Augustan time. The grammar is concise, but easily comprehended, even by young beginners. There is no useless word in the whole book; on the other hand, to every part of the syntax such an introduction is given as will level almost all the difficulties with which the student has so often to struggle. The examples given are one of the most perfect parts of the work; they are abundant, striking, illustrative, and almost all taken from the classics. We believe that no grammatical work exists in which so much material is presented in so small a space, and expressed in so clear and lucid a style."

The N. Y. Sun: "To the narrow list of sterling school books may be added *Fischer's Elements of Latin Grammar*, because it embodies the latest results of scholastic investigation, and aims to place the American student on a level with the pupils of first-class German *gymnasias*, as regards method and apparatus. The chapters on etymology attest a thorough acquaintance with the historical evolution of the Latin language, and substitute intelligible and coherent principles for

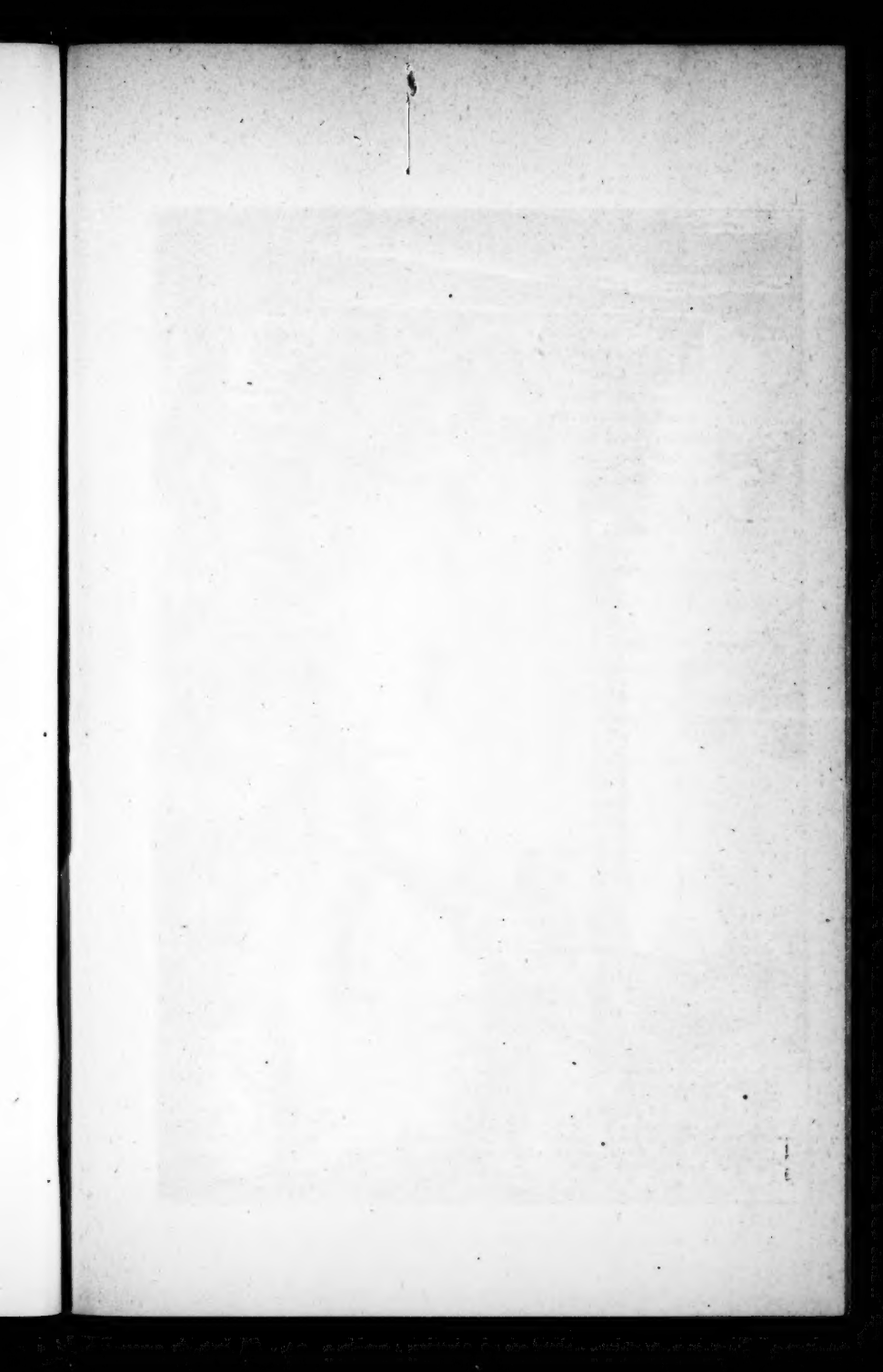
the old jumble of arbitrary rules. Those on syntax are marked by no ordinary degree of perspicuity and compression. Much that was seldom mastered without a wasteful expenditure of time and pains, under former methods, is here divested of obscurity and difficulty."

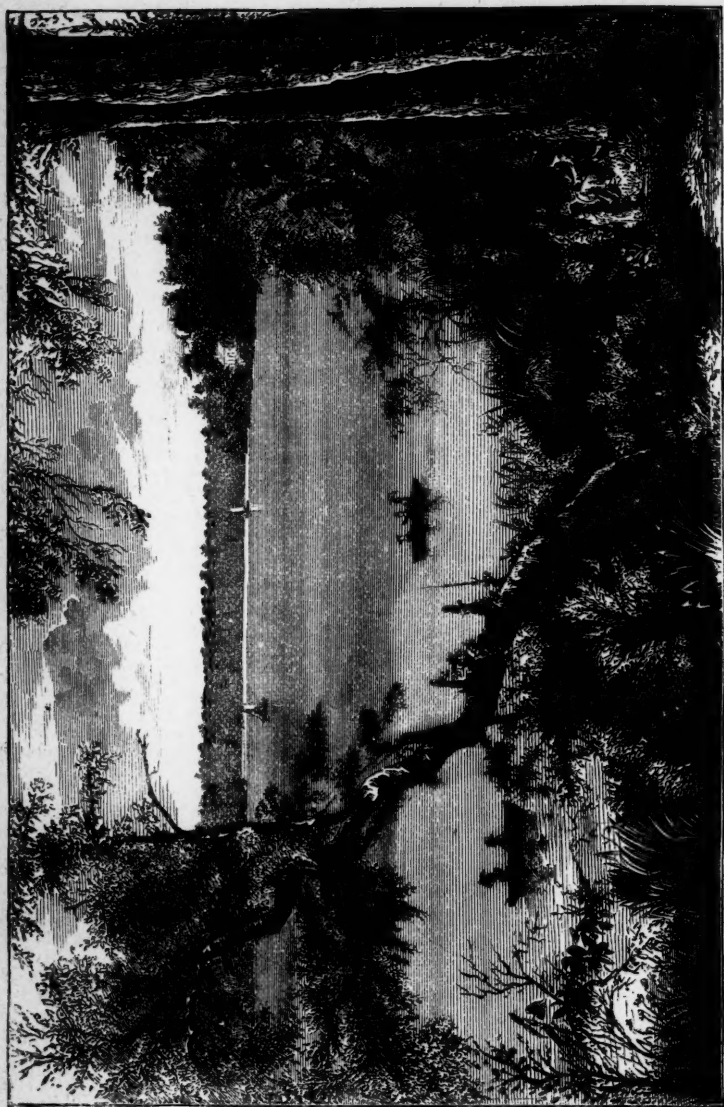
The Christian Instructor: "In the effort to have the student read and understand the language in the shortest time, we think the author has taken the course to be specially successful."

Newspapers at the Centennial.—

The special correspondent of the *London Times* says it would be difficult to find an apter illustration of the big way in which the Americans do things than that furnished by the "Centennial Newspaper Building," in the Exhibition grounds. Here you may see any one, or, if you like, all of the eight thousand one hundred and twenty-nine newspapers published regularly in the United States, and see them, one and all, for nothing! You are not only permitted as a favor to see them, but invited, nay, pressed, to confer the favor of entering the building and calling for what paper you like. It is about as cool and agreeable a place—quite apart from its literary attractions—as a visitor to the Exhibition could wish to be offered a chair in. He may at first wonder how, among eight thousand papers—among them such mighty sheets as the *New York Herald*—he is to get at the small, loved print of his home, thousands of miles away, it may be, over the Rocky Mountains. But the management is so simple that, by consulting the catalogue, or even without the aid of the catalogue, any one can at once find whatever paper he wants. They are pigeon-holed on shelves, in the alphabetical order of their States or Territories and their towns, the names of which are clearly labelled on the shelves. The proprietors of the Centennial Newspaper Building are advertising agents, the largest in all America—Messrs. G. P. Rowell & Co., of New York. Their enterprise will cost altogether about twenty thousand dollars, including the building and the expenses of "running" it for six months. The eight thousand and odd American newspapers are declared, by the same authority, to exceed "the combined issues of all the other nations of the earth."

Venable's Geometry.—Teachers who are on the lookout for the best, in the long line of new text-books, should see Venable's new translation of Legendre.





GRAND LAKE, TEXAS.